DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 271 846 EA 018 625

TITLE	Time Analysis: Managing Brevity, Variety and Fragmentation. A Presenter's Guide. Research Based Training for School Administrators. Revised.
INSTITUTION	Oregon Univ., Eugene. Center for Educational Policy and Management.
SPONS AGENCY	National Inst. of Education (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	83
GRANT	NIE-G-80-0110
NOTE	67p.; A product of the Research-Based Training for School Administrators Project.
PUB TYPE	Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055) -- Information Analyses (070)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Administrator Guides; *Administrator Role; Educational Administration; Elementary Secondary Education; *Leadership Training; *Management Development; Principals; Scheduling; *Stress Management; Superintendents; *Time Management; Workshops
IDENTIFIERS	Association of California School Administrators; *Project Leadership; University of Illinois Chicago Circle Campus

ABSTRACT

This workshop presenter's guide is intended for use by administrators in training one another in the Project Leadership program developed by the Association of California School Administrators (ACSA). The purpose of this guide is to help school administrators to develop time strategies and to use them successfully. The guide, written to be read aloud, contains a script which clarifies the terms "time" and "management" and discusses the topics of (1) recording and analyzing how time is spent, (2) features of educational management, (3) analyzing time in terms of descriptive categories, (4) learning to record activities, and (5) techniques for managing time (delegation, saying no, doubling up, closure, and procrastination). The guide also contains a 9-item bibliography of suggested readings, a handout for participants that corresponds to a suggested workshop activity, masters of 17 numbered transparencies, and a 9-page supplement containing a summary of the research report "The Urban Principal: Discretionary Decision-Making in a Large Educational Organization," by Van Cleve Morris and others, from the College of Education, University of Illinois at Chicago circle, Chicago, Illinois. (IW)

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Time Analysis:
Managing Brevity, Variety and Fragmentation

PROJECT LEADERSHIP PRESENTER'S GUIDE

Prepared by the Research-Based Training for School Administrators Project

Published by the Center for Educational Policy and Management,
College of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon
Revised 1983

Permission was secured to reproduce sections of the following:

Morris, Van Cleve; Crowson, Robert L.; Hurwitz, Jr., Emanuel; and Porter-Gehrie, Cynthia. The Urban Principal. Chicago: University of Illinois, 1981.

Printed in the United States of America
Center for Educational Policy and Management
Division of Educational Policy and Management
College of Education
University of Oregon
Eugene, Oregon 97403

Additional copies are available from CEPM for $10.00.

No federal money was used in the printing of this material.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This material is a product of the Research-Based Training for School Administrators Project (RBTSA). The work was supported by the contract NIE-G-80-0110 P-6 with the National Institute of Education, but does not necessarily represent the views of that agency.

A training model called Project Leadership developed by the Association of California School Administrators (ACSA) and directed by James Olivero was selected as a vehicle for the purpose of disseminating research and state-of-the-art materials to school administrators. Project Leadership is built upon two key ideas: networking and administrators training one another using scripted workshop materials called Presenter's Guides. This is a Presenter's Guide developed by the team at the Center for Educational Policy and Management (CEPM).

All members of our team at CEPM have contributed in some way to this material. They include William Auty, Ray Embry, Nancy Isaacson, Martha Landry, Scott Lane, Max Riley, and Hugh Watson. We are grateful to Debbie Rauch for her clerical assistance.

And finally, we are grateful to A. Lorri Manasse, Project Officer at the National Institute of Education; to James Olivero and James Slezak of the Association of California School Administrators; to Bert Simmons and Ozzie Rose of the Confederation of Oregon School Administrators; and to William Lahmann and Howard Coble of the Washington Association of School Administrators. These people contributed greatly in promoting and developing Project Leadership in Oregon and Washington.

USING THE GUIDE

The guide is written so that it can be read aloud, but we believe you will want to make changes and provide your own examples. You should adapt the material to your personal needs and the needs of your audience.

You are equipped with the Presenter's Guide, which contains a script and suggestions for the conduct of the session (in italics). In the back you will find the following: (1) a bibliography of suggested reading that is designed to augment the content of the packet and aid you in preparing for your presentation, (2) a handout for participants that corresponds to a suggested workshop activity, (3) masters of numbered transparencies that have been designed to give visual emphasis to the main points of your presentation, and (4) a supplement.

PRIOR TO THE WORKSHOP

1. Review guide -- the script, transparency masters, and handout -- prior to the workshop.
2. Prepare copies of handout materials for each participant.
3. Prepare transparencies from the "masters." These are especially appealing when colors are added.
4. Arrange for meeting room facilities: Ideally, the facilities will offer places for participants to write as well as areas for breaking up into small groups.
5. Arrange to have an overhead projector, screen, three-prong adapter and extension cord at the meeting room. Insure that the room is equipped with a chalkboard or flipchart visible to all participants.
6. Arrange for coffee or other refreshments, if desirable.

OUTLINE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

- 1.1 Concern about time in education
- 1.2 Clarification of terms -- time, management
- 1.3 How analysis works

2.0 RECORDING AND ANALYZING HOW TIME IS SPENT IN A DAY

- 2.1 Recording a day's activities
- 2.2 Analyzing use of time by sorting activities into prescriptive categories
- 2.3 Use of theoretical categories to analyze administrative work

3.0 FEATURES OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

- 3.1 Unrelenting pace
- 3.2 Brevity, variety, fragmentation
- 3.3 Preference for live action
- 3.4 Spoken communication
- 3.5 The organization and a network of contacts
- 3.6 Clarification

4.0 ANALYZING A DAY'S TIME IN TERMS OF DESCRIPTIVE CATEGORIES

- 4.1 Introduction of categories based on descriptions
- 4.2 Sorting activities into descriptive categories

5.0 LEARNING TO RECORD ACTIVITIES

- 5.1 Importance of recording
- 5.2 Examples of recording and analyzing

6.0 TECHNIQUES FOR MANAGING TIME AFTER ANALYSIS HAS BEEN PERFORMED

- 6.1 Delegation
- 6.2 Saying no
- 6.3 Doubling up

6.4 Closure

6.5 Procrastination

7.0 WORKSHOP SUMMARY

1.0 INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCE YOURSELF AND THE TOPIC SHOW TRANSPARENCY #1

Transparency #1 introduces the cartoon characters used to illustrate the script throughout this guide. You may wish to introduce them as "Arlene and Art Administrator."

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #2

I don't have to explain why all of you are here. You wouldn't be in a time analysis workshop unless you felt you needed to make better use of your time. This feeling is part of our profession. A recent edition of Principal magazine (September 1980, p 48) contained the results of a survey that asked the biggest problems principals faced. The replies were predictable: paperwork, federal regulations, coping with outside pressure groups, incompetent but tenured teachers, and discipline. But most of the problems the principals faced "boiled down to a matter of overload, which one principal phrased as 'trying to give 110 percent to teachers, students, and parents.'"

1.1 Today we want to look at this drive on the part of school administrators to give 110 percent. It's an admirable characteristic. It means that we care about our jobs and care about doing them well. But it probably means that we spread ourselves too thin. Giving 110 percent is impossible by definition, and the stress generated in reaching for it may be counter-productive. We need to manage our time so that we give 100 percent, and we need to know when we have done it so that then we can relax and get ready for the 100 percent we will have to give again the next day.

1.2 We are interested in knowing how to analyze the way we spend our time so that we can manage it. First we need to know what we mean by the concepts time and management. "Time" is a fascinating notion and for different people it means different things. Some cultures still don't bother with clocks, but for several hundred years western culture has been carving up natural time divisions, like periods of light and darkness, into arbitrary divisions, like hours and minutes. This is a very mechanical way to analyze time. It causes us to direct our attention almost exclusively to the duration of time, and not to its quality.

We know accurately what an eight-hour day is, or in the case of school administrators, a twelve-hour day. But we are less accurate when we define a "good day's work." We are accustomed to thinking that we will set aside an hour to do a job, but perhaps less accustomed to thinking that we will do a job efficiently and well no matter how long it takes and then when we have finished we will measure the time not in how long it took but in how well we did it. Today we will shift our analytical focus from duration to quality.

Now, about management. Let's think about the management of time in the same way we think about "money management." In money management, the ideal is to use a limited resource in such a way that all the essentials are paid for and that the discretionary money is spent for priority items. We want to manage our time in the same way. But in many household budgets, especially well managed ones, there is a line for "mad money," a few bucks that we can spend any way we want to. That's our ideal here too--to have a little time left over to splurge with, to do just what we want with because we know the essentials have been taken care of and there's no other demand to be met. *To establish your credibility, tell how long you have been actively following the guidelines of the packet.*

So how do we manage our time? Well, it takes work. I've been working on my own time management program for _____now, and I can say from experience that it doesn't come easily. First, we won't have more time, but if we apply the right kind of approach to the problem, we can make more efficient use of the time we have. Let me give you an example of what I mean.

FOLLOW WITH YOUR
OWN TIME MANAGEMENT
"SUCCESS STORY"

Offer a positive example of how the quality of your time has improved as a result of the time analysis and management techniques of the packet. Make this example brief (one minute or so). You will have the opportunity to share more of your success story later in the presentation.

1.3 Let me give a warning to those of you who are looking for a major breakthrough--some gimmick that will miraculously change your lives so that you will have several extra hours to yourself each day. You won't find that gimmick here. There's nothing magical in what we will do for the next hour or so. We'll take a very rational approach to the problem--recording activity, analysis, creative thinking, putting a plan in action, and evaluating it. In the end, none of us will take exactly the same path. What works for one of us may not work for another. You will develop your own personal time plan based on what your personal time analysis reveals.

We can draw on one another for inspiration, ideas, and support. And we can, if we are successful, help others with their time problems and draw on them for new ideas. The idea of this workshop, and of all the other workshops in this series, is to increase our competency so that we can train others. When you reach that stage, you'll have ideas and experience you can pass on to others. The goal, then, is not to learn isolated techniques, but to learn how to develop our own time strategies and to use them successfully.

Let's begin practicing analysis by making a record of how we actually spend a day. The first page of the set of handouts which I gave you before the workshop started is a recording form. It has times of the day and space to record activities.

The recording which follows may be left out if participants have already filled in a Daily Activity Report sent to them before the workshop.

DISPLAY
HANDOUT #1

Hold up a copy of Handout #1. Show participants where to record activity on the form.

2.0 RECORDING AND ANALYZING

2.1 Take a few minutes to record what you actually did during your last full working day. Limit your list to activities that lasted more than five or ten minutes. Feel free to generalize if several related activities were accomplished over a long period of time. For instance, you may have spent a half hour answering several pieces of correspondence. You can show this as one activity. Leave the columns at the right blank for the time being.

ALLOW TIME FOR THE

RECORDING ACTIVITY

(approximately 5 minutes)

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #3

These categories were first used by Henri Fayol in 1916. See Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Management. (London: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, Ltd., 1949). The categories have been included in numerous educational administration textbooks since that time.

2.2 Now take a look at the transparency. What it shows is a common textbook prescription for what managers should do when they are doing their jobs correctly. According to this "ideal," we should spend most of our time planning, organizing, coordinating, and controlling. Take another minute or so to analyze your recording using these four categories and another catchall category--"other."

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #4

In the right-hand columns of the recording form, put the number of minutes elapsed under the label which best describes each of the activities. Choose the label that best describes the nature of the activity you recorded for that time slot. Don't be hesitant about recording "other" when one of the first four categories doesn't fit the activity.

ALLOW TIME FOR THE
PARTICIPANTS TO
LABEL ACTIVITIES

RECORD
PARTICIPANT
RESPONSES

The participants should have marked something on each of the lines provided for them. If they have trouble, remind them that the "other" category can be used wherever there is doubt. Ask for a sample of how many blanks were labeled with each of the labels and record this information on a blackboard under appropriate headings or directly onto transparency #4. The idea here is to show that there are many activities that fall in the "other" category and that the prescriptive ideal is inadequate for explaining what school managers actually do. Use this opportunity to make light comments when the participants report their totals--"Hard day at the office," or "Gee, you're quite a planner," will help this recording activity move along swiftly. Move on as soon as you have made a case for the inadequacy of the prescriptive ideal.

2.3 What we have done so far is a basic kind of recording and analysis. Our analysis has shown that a considerable part of our day is involved in activities that don't fit the old prescription that calls for planning, organizing, coordinating, and controlling. I want to concentrate for a moment on the activities that you labeled "other." I think you'll find that some of these activities are essential in doing your jobs, even though they don't fit the old ideal. If I may again use the analogy of budgeting money instead of time, these activities resemble those essential purchases that don't fall under major categories like food and shelter. You may have a budget item for your house payment and none for minor repairs, but I think you'll agree some expenditure is necessary when it's raining and there's a hole in your roof. Let me have some examples of activities that you labeled "other" so that we can begin to get an idea of where we ought to go if we are going to build a better "ideal" of what school managers do with their time.

DISCUSSION

In this discussion you will want to help the participants concentrate on the quality of the time spent in the "other" activities. For example, if a participant had to quell a disturbance or give a speech, lead that person to the realization that this was important managerial activity--quality time spent--even though it is not covered in the prescriptive categories. Some of the items mentioned in the discussion, however, will not be good examples of managerial time well spent, and you should lead the participants to see that these activities will eventually be targets for their time management plans. The idea here is to make the participants uneasy with the notion that planning, organizing, coordinating, and controlling are <u>all</u> that a manager does when time is well spent. This will make the participants more recep-

tive to the descriptive studies that are summarized in the next part of the workshop.

With these examples we can see that the old prescription has some faults. It just doesn't cover what we do in the course of a productive day. Since that's the case, we need to think about a new "ideal." When we have in mind a better idea of what we ought to be doing, it will be easier to analyze our time so that we actually do it. Researchers have looked at this problem, and can borrow from them in putting together our new ideal.

3.0 DESCRIPTIVE FEATURES

The researchers wanted to build on the old description of managers as planners, organizers, coordinators, and controllers, so they studied managers at work. They studied managers at every level and in a variety of settings, from the White House to the factory, from board rooms to street corner gangs, and from massive corporations to small companies.

What they found out shouldn't surprise us very much after our own exploration of our jobs today. Put simply, they found out that the old prescription needed to be extended. Henry Mintzberg sums up their findings in his book, The Nature of Managerial Work. Here are the findings:

3.1 First, the managerial job is characterized "by much work at an unrelenting pace." (Mintzberg 1973, p. 29)

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #5

Mintzberg says that the studies show that at all levels, managers do a tremendous amount of work. Whenever even the smallest break in the pace of the work appears, something else seems to come along to fill the gap, and there is always more work to be done but never enough time. (1973, p. 30)

This is true in schools, too. Senior high school principals report that they work more than 50 hours a week; 30 percent of them say that they work more than 60 hours a week. Nearly half the superintendents in one study reported that they work more than 60 hours a week.

See John K. Hemphill, James M. Richards and Richard E. Peterson, Report of the Senior High School Principalship (Washington, D.C.: NASSP, 1965); Nancy J. Pitner and Rodney T. Ogawa, "Organizational Leadership: The Case of the School Superintendent," Educational Administration Quarterly, Spring, 1981.

SURVEY PARTICIPANTS
RE: LENGTH OF THEIR
WORK WEEK

Ask for a show of hands: How many work more than 40, more than 50, more than 60 hours a week?

It looks like we work a lot of hours. That's probably not how it ought to be, but study after study shows that that's how it is. I hope all of us can do something about changing the pattern, but right now we have to face the reality of our workload.

Why do we work so many hours? Mintzberg believes that are two reasons. The first is that our jobs are open-ended. We're responsible for the success of our organizations, and that makes our work very important. We want to do everything we can. It's that old 110 percent again. The second reason is

that there aren't any tangible mileposts to mark the end of a job. When an engineer finishes a design or a lawyer wins or loses a case, they know that at least for the time being their work is done. But managers don't have mileposts like that. One task just leads to another. (Mintzberg 1973, p. 30)

3.2 Another characteristic of managerial work is that "activity is characterized by brevity, variety, and fragmentation." (Mintzberg 1973, p. 31)

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #6

Some managers, like lower level foremen, have been shown to engage in over 1,000 incidents in a single work day. Even at the top levels of large corporations, managers still put in a fragmented work day. One study shows that principals are involved in from 50 to 100 separate incidents in an average school day.

See Ray Cross, "The Principal as a Counterpuncher," The National Elementary Principal 2 (October, 1971), 26-9.

Obviously these incidents don't last long. Over half last fewer than 9 minutes, many as few as 2 minutes. (Mintzberg, 1973, p. 33) In one study of superintendents only scheduled meetings could be expected to last longer than 30 minutes--all other activities, including deskwork, telephone calls, unscheduled meetings, and tours, were always brief.

Mintzberg says there's reason to believe some managers prefer this way of doing things. By doing a lot of things in brief spaces of time, they actually get quite a job done--one that they might not be able to do if they went into the office and shut the door. Mintzberg's point is that the very nature of our work as managers may require us to work this way in order to do the job efficiently. (Mintzberg 1973, pp. 34-35)

3.3 Another finding is that managers prefer live action. (Mintzberg 1973, p. 35)

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #7

Managers show a preference for the most current information--not routine reports that summarize activities already in the past. Ordinarily they handle their mail casually. After all, it is mostly unsolicited and it isn't "happening right now." They prefer specific issues--decisions to be made about actual situations--and not broader and more general concerns. Managers work in an environment of stimulus-response.

* *If you need to use an example to make this point more forcefully, you might add that studies of the American presidency showed that they work this way, despite what would appear to be obvious needs for reflections and long-range planning*

See Harry Wolcott, The Man in the Principal's Office (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1973).

The nature of the job requires this. The manager has to be involved, and people who work for the manager like to see this involvement. One study found that teachers don't like "office sitters" as principals. They need access to the principal to maintain their effectiveness and commitment. But more importantly, the principal needs access to them too--to find out what is happening now, to be involved in the action of the moment. Too much reflection means isolation from the life of the organization.

3.4 Managerial studies have also shown that leaders in all settings prefer spoken as opposed to written communication.

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #8

Managers at every level spend a great part of their days in talking and listening--on the telephone, in scheduled and unscheduled conferences, and in making contacts with personnel while touring the organization. This, of course, is not surprising. The immediacy of conversation fits well with the characteristics we have already discussed--brief and fragmented activities, a preference for live action, and an unrelenting pace.

If the manager is perceptive--and most managers are--there is more to oral communication than just the words that are spoken. The perceptive manager receives information in face-to-face contacts that is filtered out of written reports, and this information is important . (Mintzberg 1973, p. 41) One can tell the mood and the attitude of a speaker, assess the urgency of the communication, and read nuances in tone and gesture. But perhaps most importantly, one can respond right away. Feedback loops develop, and things happen fast in these interactive exchanges.

One detailed study of an elementary school principal found that he spent 76% of an average day in interactive situations. That percentage was found to be even higher in a study of superintendents. School people talk and listen. Rarely, except for formal reports, do they commit their thoughts to writing, and when they do it is usually in the form of very brief messages. When managers do write, they usually find it an unpleasant task. For managers, writing is usually not time well managed.

3.5 Now here's Mintzberg's last finding in the managerial studies. He says that it's the nature of managerial work to operate in an area between the organization and a network of contacts. In this role, the

manager is a kind of nerve center. (Mintzberg 1973, p. 48)

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #9

Vital information flows both ways--from the environment and from superiors in the organization through the manager to the manager's personnel, and from the personnel through the manager back into the larger environment.

Managers typically have three kinds of contacts.

They spend a substantial amount of time with subordinates. They spend much less time with superiors. But they may also spend quite a bit of time with persons form outside the organization (Mintzberg 1973, p. 44). For school administrators this means parents, of course, but also a whole network of other community contacts as well. The administrator "reads" messages from this network, uses them as a source of information for decision-making, and interprets them before passing them along to other members of the organization. Similarly, the administrator interprets what happens <u>in</u> the organization and filters that information before sending it along through the same network of contacts.

* *You may want to give an example of an administrator filtering information. For example, how might an administrator pass on complaints about a teacher if they came from the sheriff? From parents? From an anonymous source?*

In this sense, <u>every communication instance</u> is an act of management. The administrator uses these contacts to keep the organization and the environment informed about what each is up to. The administrator is thus able to maintain organizational balance.

We, as managers, are uniquely placed between the organization and the outside. If we retreat from this position, we do so at the cost of forfeiting control. That is, if we cut off contact form either side, we lose the ability to make the little adjustments that bring harmony and we can't see the disjunctions that will worsen unless we do something about them. Thus we relish the quick contact, the informative telephone call, the interruption--even the unrelenting pace--because all of these keep us abreast of what's happening and allow us to do something about it.

If our time management scheme puts us somehow outside this constant flow of brief verbal messages, unrelenting work pressures, and fragmented activities, then it may be that we have gone too far. We won't have the information we need, nor will we be there when the decision must be made. That's too much of a price to be paid.

3.6 Let me put these summary items back on the screen for a moment and let's look at all of them together.

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #10

When I put up the planning, organizing, coordinating, controlling ideal of the manager a while ago, I called it a prescription. It was developed by management theorists who were talking about waht they thought managers ought to do. What is up here now is description. It tells us not what we ought to do, but what, in fact, we do. The items in this list are summaries of what many researchers found out about managers by actually recording the events in their days. This included observations of superintendents, principals, and vice-principals. The findings of the studies are amazingly consistent.

4.0 ANALYZING A DAY'S TIME

Let's review what we have here. We work at an unrelenting pace. Our activities are brief, various, and fragmented; we like live action; we would rather talk than write; and we're located at the most strategic spots in our organizations. Let me ask you--does your experience validate these findings?

DISCUSSION

* *At this stage the participants must be convinced that the descriptions actually apply to them or they are likely to reject what follows. You can draw on your experience to add to the discussion if necessary, but it is anticipated that school administrators enrolled in a time-analysis seminar will feel the accuracy of the description immediately and it will be unnecessary to convince anyone at this stage.*

4.1 So now we're describing rather than prescribing. Out of this description ten managerial roles can be identified.

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #11

4.2 I could tell you what these role headings mean, but you'll get an even better idea if you tell me. Let's try now to identify activities that fit each of the roles. Here is a handout that lists the roles and has space for you to write activities that might appropriately be classified under each of the headings. Let's try to think of at least three concrete activities for each heading. You may wish to refer to the activ-

ities you listed on Handout 1.

DISCUSSION
Sample activities for
category headings

* *Lead this dicussion briskly, using your familiarity with the lists provided by Pitner and Morris to help you make decisions. Don't draw the distinctions too finely. The idea is to establish familiarity with the new concepts, not to encourage precise analyses. There are probably dozens of activities which might comfortably fit in more than one category.*

Now that we've had some practice in identifying these categories of managerial behavior, let me explain how I think they can be valuable to you. The list of managerial behaviors that Mintzberg and others have identified doesn't designate which activities are valuable and which are not. That is, the list doesn't give us any idea of what activities are of high quality and which are potential time-wasters. Let's look at the quality of some of the activities we suggested for these categories.

DISCUSSION

* *In this discussion, you should ask the participants for one or two examples of activities of high quality that they have suggested in the earlier discussion. When these have been mentioned, you should ask for some examples of activities of questionable quality. The participants should be allowed to discuss these questionable items fully. It provides practice in thinking about activities that are potential time-wasters. When the discussion makes clear the idea that activities, even though they fall comfortably into one of the categories, may still be time-wasters, you may then resume the script.*

After we have analyzed our own activities, we will still have to determine which events in our work day were essential and which were not worth doing. But sorting out the activities of our own day into categories like these is a valuable first step. It makes us think consciously about how our time was spent and about the nature of our jobs. The categories will us to understand for ourselves what we do and what it means.

We can use the categories another way. Suppose we record an activity and can't place it comfortably in any of the categories. That will call our attention specifically to that activity and we will have an opportunity to assess its quality.

DISCUSSION

* *In this discussion, you should ask for one or two examples of kinds of activity that do not fit into one of the ten categories. Then the participants should discuss whether the activity is a potential time-waster. You should have one or two examples from personal experience in case the participants have no ready examples of their own.*

5.0 LEARNING TO RECORD

My guess is that many of the activities that we record and can't categorize will be potential time-wasters, and only by using the categories on a routine basis will we be able to spot these.

I keep referring to recording. Now that we have these categories and a better idea of what managerial activity is, we need some way of seeing just how we, as individuals, manage our own time. The key to this is recording our own activities.

A form for recording your activities has been developed.

HANDOUT #3

Using the transparency, explain Handout #3. Use personal examples to make the discussion concrete. Point out that they may record their own activities or a secretary may record for them. The log may be used to record everything that happens or specific kinds of activities, such as telephone calls or meetings. They should record their activities for at least a week.

SHOW TRANSPARENCY # 12

5.1 *If you have already made this point while discussing the activity log, you may skip this paragraph.*

We must record our activities. There's no getting around that. Without having some record of our activities, we can't analyze, and without analysis we can't apply solutions to the trouble spots. Again, to

use the budgeting analogy, we can't make good decisions about how we ought to spend our money unless we have a pretty good idea of how we actually do spend it. If we record our expenditures for a couple of months before making a budget, the plan we finally make will be more realistic than one made up out of thin air. And the longer we record, the more accurate our planning becomes.

Sitting down with our record, we sort out the activities. If we use the ten categories mentioned earlier, we have a good place to start. Do the activities fit the categories, or don't they? If they don't they're probably not managerial activities, and we may look for ways to stop that kind of activity altogether. If they do fit, they may still be of high quality or of low quality. Remember we said at the outset we were looking for high quality managerial activities. Therefore, we need to look at the specifics of our day one at a time. It's only in the specifics that we'll see how solutions can be applied.

5.2 **You may use your own example here. If you do, adapt the script immediately following the example.*

Here's an example: Let's say one of you gets a telephone call from the manager of the neighborhood convenience grocery store. He begins by complaining that some students at your school have been causing trouble in his store. You ask for some details, and when you have these you promise to do something about the problem. Because the caller is mad, you spend a few monemts soothing feelings and reestablishing good will. But this leads to a conversation about how the caller's business is going, and how the economy is giving us all problems. You agree that the crunch is hurting everyone, and that it even makes a big difference in how people vote in bond elections affecting the schools. The caller tells you an

anecdote about how his neighbor has decided to vote no on every bond issue until inflation is under 7% again. The caller asks about how your spouse is doing and you return the favor. After some more personal talk and a promise to get back to the caller with a report on what you have done to alleviate the problem he called about, you hang up.

Have you been managing? Sure. You have acted as Monitor and Disturbance Handler at least. You may have acted as Liason as well, keeping alive the idea that schools still need money in tight economic times. But in some of the call, time may have been wasted. So you record the call. You list the activity, check that it was interpersonal and informational, but you wonder how to evaluate it. You decide on "medium." Under comments you might jot, "Talked too much about personal items." This one notation won't tell you much. But if, after a week of recording, you find that you have made this or a similar notation many times, then you are ready to seek a solution.

It's important, though, that according to our new definition of managerial work the call was mostly time well spent. It allowed you to gain current information. It gave you a chance to respond before a condition worsened. It kept open a link with an important member of the community. It allowed you to tell the school's story. Even if it was an interruption, it was a necessary interruption because of the nature of your job. You wouldn't want to eliminate such an activity--merely manage it more effectively. And if you find over time that you ordinarily handle such calls efficiently, that's an activity you can stop recording.

6.0 TECHNIQUES FOR MANAGING TIME

So we've talked a little about recording and a little about analyzing. Now let's turn to some solutions. The solutions I have to offer aren't

new ones. Remember that I warned you that I had no miracles. But they are experience-tested solutions, and it is a good idea to list some of them and look at some specific instances where they might be useful to you.

We're going to talk about five techniques today to give you a start in managing your time: 1) delegation 2) saying no 3) doubling up 4) closure and 5) working on your own procrastination problems.

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #13

6.1 As important as the technique of delegation is, it has limited value to managers. Mintzberg says there is a "dilemma of delegation" (Mintzberg 1973, p 74). Often it takes more time to delegate than to do the job yourself. Because you are in a unique position in the organization, you have all the current information. Since this information isn't commonly written down, it would take a long time to relay it to a subordinate, maybe even longer than it would take to do the job itself. So you must be careful what you delegate and how you delegate.

Suppose in your activity recording you see some tasks that take up your time and you think someone else might be able to do them. Analyze those tasks. Are they naturally yours because you have the verbal network that gives you access to the information necessary to get the job done? In that case don't delegate. Or are they routine tasks that could easily be assumed by someone else in the organization while you get on about the business of managing? In that case, by all means delegate. The point is that only analysis of your recorded activities will help you determine which tasks to delegate.

Before we move on, I want you to describe a couple of examples of successful delegation. I'll want to do this with each of the techniques to show how specific solutions must be found for specific problems. Who has delegated a task that is still being done well by someone else, and has picked up some valuable time in doing so?

DISCUSSION

* *Get one or two short examples here from participants. If not forthcoming, you should supply some examples from your own experience. Look for sharply defined examples, and try to show how successful examples fit the pattern just discussed. You might also want to elicit some negative examples to show how the technique is situation-specific.*

Good. Now here's a second technique--saying no.

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #14

6.2 Mintzberg advises that the most important time to say "NO" is at the very beginning of potentially long-term commitments. For example, you may be asked to serve on a board of directors for a community project. You think the project is important and world like to have a say in what happens, but you must weigh the time demands of the project against the gains--to yourself and to your organization--that will result from saying "yes." What are the costs--in terms of your own time and energy, and in terms of time spent away from the important tasks of your organization--if you say "no?" Remember that once you commit yourself to such an

activity, someone else will almost certainly be scheduling your time. It is very difficult to back out of such a commitment once you have said "yes." (Mintzberg 1973, p. 50-51)

You can also say "no" to yourself. If you want to initiate a change, or start a long-term program of your own, think it through at the beginning. Your recording may help you here. If you record a discussion in which the idea of a long-term project is proposed, think it all the way through in terms of the time you will certainly have to spend.

You can combine technique one--delegation--with technique two. At the beginning of long-term activities, you are not so burdened by verbal information that you can't swiftly delegate someone else to participate instead of yourself. Later, when the information really begins to flow, delegation will become impossible.

Let's have some examples again. Can you recall times when you said "no" and saved yourself some time? Or times when you said "yes" and wasted some time? Or times when you said "no" and it was probably a mistake?

DISCUSSION

* *Same as previous discussion.*

6.3 Good. We can delegate, and we can say no. Here's another technique. We call it "doubling up."

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #15

You can add quality to the way you spend your time by performing

more than one role in any activity.

Suppose you have to give a little talk about a new school program. You're acting as a spokesperson. But you can also act as a monitor and a liaison during the remainder of the program when you aren't talking. Use the opportunity to meet someone new and establish a new contact. Ask questions to find out how the new program is being received and what problems you might encounter. Make all the time you spend in such an activity quality time.

Do you have any examples of how time can be saved by doubling up?

DISCUSSION

* *Same as previous discussion.*

6.4 Another technique is closure.

SHOW TRANSPARENCY #16

By this we mean shutting off an activity when the quality diminishes. It can mean terminating a telephone call or a meeting.

If your recording shows that you are doing a decent job in your telephone calls but that you tend to talk too long, devise a way to hang up. Say something like, "I've got some people in the office I have to talk to. I'll call you back when I have the answers we need." Then do call back when you are ready for more quality talking.

If your recording shows that your meetings--the ones you call--drag on and on, look for ways to shut them off. You may want to work on a tighter

agenda, set a time for the meeting to end, or even schedule another activity right after the meeting so that everyone works against that deadline.

The idea here is that you may not want to eliminate activities--just cut them off when they have ceased to be fruitful. Only by recording carefully and analyzing accurately will you be able to spot these time wasting extensions of otherwise valuable activities.

If you only record "meeting" or "telephone call," you won't know whether it has been a quality activity. That's why we suggest that you concentrate on recording just part of your week at first, concentrating on a certain kind of activity until you see whether it wastes time or not.

Let's have some examples of closure at work. I believe we can generate quite a list of practical techniques for closure.

DISCUSSION

* *Some good sources of time-saving ideas which you may use to stimulate discussion here are the ACSA Instructor's Manual for the Project Leadership Time Management presentation, developed by Art Thayer and Larry Ruttan, and revised by Jack Landis; TOYL: Time of You Life, by Joseph F. Lagana (Pittsburgh, 1979); and The Time Trap, by R. Alec Mackenzie (New York, 1976), a time-management workbook.*

6.5 One last word about time management. Maybe the biggest enemy for some of us is procrastination. Only truthful recording will let us know just how much we procrastinate. We may not even recognize that we're doing it until we are confronted by it in our activity recording. There aren't any techniques to help you stop procrastinating--it involves will power more than technique.

You probably won't be able to make sudden progress if you have trouble with procrastination, so just try for small incremental gains. If your recording shows that you get started slowly nearly every morning, try to design some activity which will help you make a faster start every day. If you dawdle over the mail, read the mail at the end of the day--not the beginning.

Procrastination may be a result of too much stress. If you work at managing your time, you may find that the stress diminishes and that you naturally procrastinate less. It's largely an unconscious habit, and the conscious activity of recording and anlyzing may have the effect of reducing procrastination just because you become more self-aware.

The techniques covered here don't exhaust the list of possible remedies, but we have to practice some closure of our own now, and I want to review the whole program very quickly. Here's how it looks:

SHOW TRANSPARENCY # 17

7.0 WORKSHOP SUMMARY

7.1 The first step is for you or someone else to record you expenditure of time. We recommend concentrating your recording on just one kind of activity at a time--say telephone calls or meetings. Get an accurate picture of what actually happens.

Then analyze what happens. Use the categories of managerial behavior to help you in the analysis. If something isn't appropriate for your job, make a plan to eliminate it. If your activities are appropriate, make a plan to increase their quality.

This leads to the second step in analysis--determining the quality of the time spent. For example, not all information is of the same quality,

so if you spend your "information-gathering time" getting repetitious or obvious information, you will need to look for better information sources.

The next step is planning a remedy. Remember that these will have to be specific remedies for specific problems, so no miracles will occur. But conscious application of common sense techniques will help. Look at the list of techniques and choose one that will make a difference for the particular problem that your recording and analysis have identified. Make a resolution to put the plan to work.

Then put the plan into action. Shorten your telephone calls. Double up your roles in activities. Delegate what you can. Say no three times this week.

And keep recording. See if the plan brings positive results. If it does, shift your attention to another problem area and start the cycle again. Start recording a new activity. But continue the behavior that's already showing results. From time to time you will have to record in the successful areas to make sure that you aren't backsliding.

7.2 I believe you'll see improvement from these techniques. I want to make sure you don't just walk out of here and shrug the whole matter off, though. So I have a homework assignment.

The assignment is designed for managers. It doesn't require you to write anything. But before you leave here today, you must g t the names of two other participants and arrange to call them or have them call you exactly one month from now. When you talk to each other, you will want to recount success stories and ideas about time analysis and management. If you want to, you can arrange more calls after that. It's a good idea to have this network of support. If you have spectacular success with some method, call me. I'd like to incorporate your success stories in later presentations of this seminar.

If any of you would like to stay a few minutes to talk about recording techniques or about the forms for recording--or anything else I've said--please do so. The rest of you should fill out the seminar evaluation form in the back of your packet, and then you may leave. I hope you've managed to have a good time.

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HANDOUT MASTER

HANDOUT #1

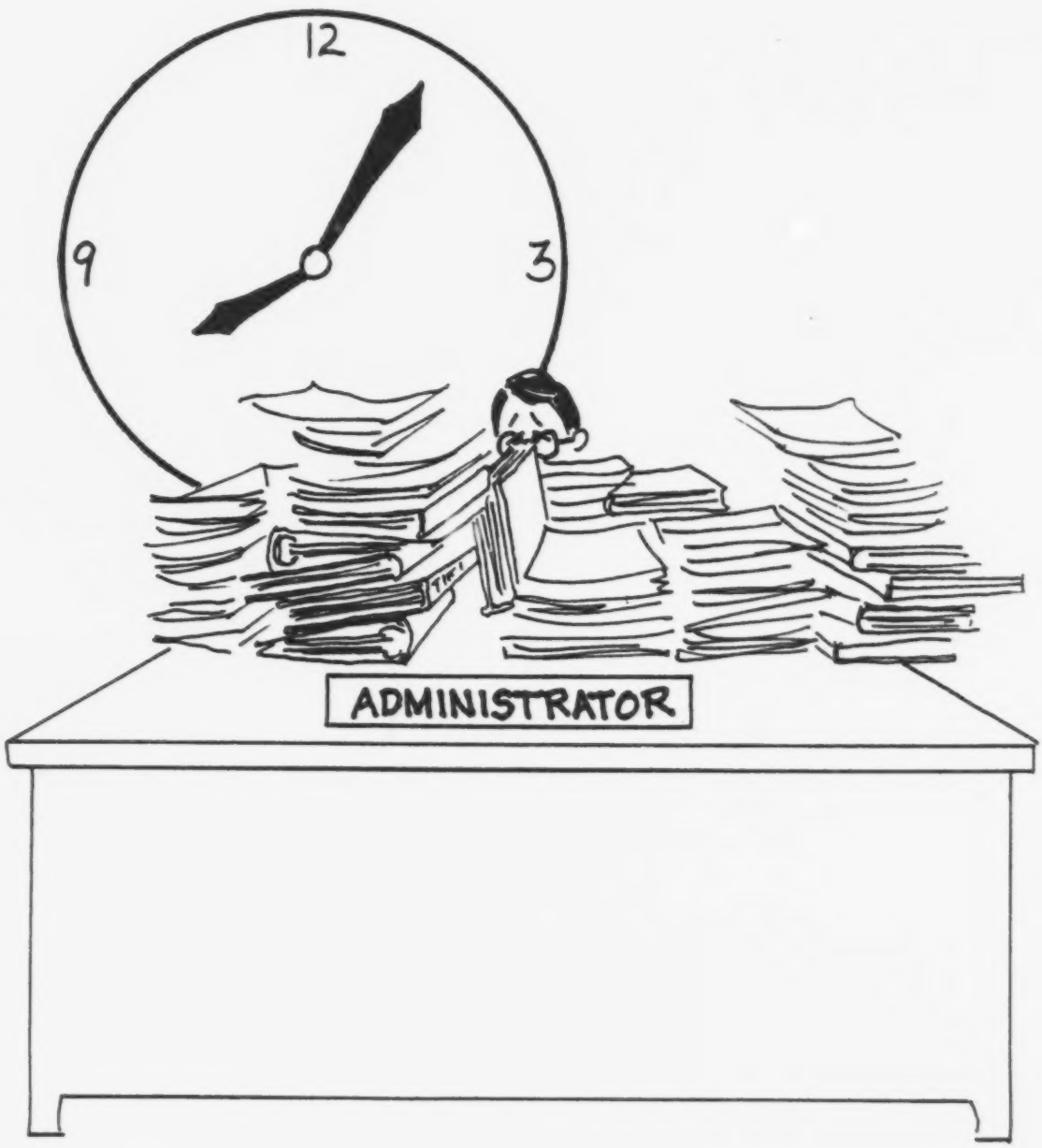
TIME ANALYSIS WORKSHOP

Date _____ DAILY ACTIVITY REPORT

TIME	ACTIVITY	(Check One) Planning	Organizing	Controlling	Coordinating	Other	
EXAMPLE: 8:00 - 8:30	Meeting with department heads	30					No. of minutes

TRANSPARENCY MASTERS

12
3
6
9


12
9
3
ADMINISTRATOR

PLANNING

ORGANIZING

CONTROLLING

COORDINATING

PLANNING

ORGANIZING

CONTROLLING

COORDINATING

OTHER

Much work at an unrelenting pace.

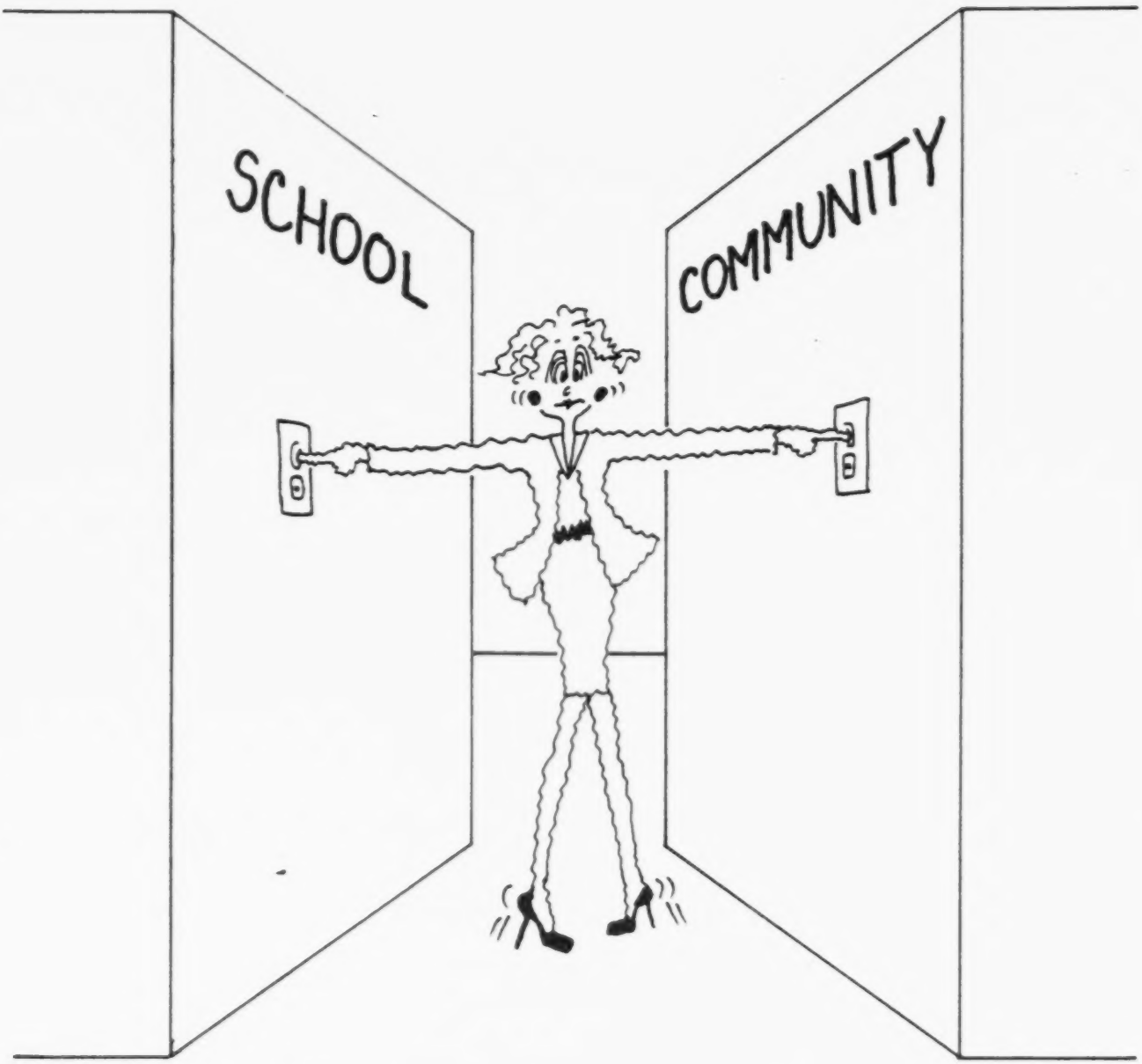
Brevity

Variety

Frag-men-ta-tion

Prefer live action.

Attracted to spoken communication.



Between the organization
and a network of contacts.

1. UNRELENTING PACE

2. BREVITY, VARIETY, FRAGMENTATION

3. LIVE ACTION

4. SPOKEN COMMUNICATION

5. BETWEEN ORGANIZATION AND ENVIRONMENT

(Mintzberg 1973, p. 28-48, 51-53)

Figurehead Leader Liason	INTERPERSONAL
Monitor Disseminator Spokesman	INFORMATIONAL
Entrepreneur Disturbance Handler Resource Allocator Negotiator	DECISIONAL

(Mintzberg 1973, p. 92-93)

Daily Activity Log

TIME ANALYSIS

TIME	ACTIVITY	ROLE			QUALITY			COMMENT
	P = Phone Call SM = Scheduled Meeting U = Unscheduled Meeting Code and Describe	INTERPERSONAL	INFORMATIONAL	DECISION MAKING	HIGH	MEDIUM	TIME WASTER	Delegate to Say "no" Double Up Closure Procrastination Other
8:30	*SM - Make welcoming speech at student assembly*	✓			✓			*double up - use time to find out about "X"*

Adapted from
(Mintzberg 1973, p. 235)

DELEGATION

NO!
REQUEST
ADMINISTRATOR

DOUBLING UP

CLOSURE

RECORD

ANALYZE

DESIGN REMEDY

TRY REMEDY

RECORD AGAIN

SUPPLEMENT

S U M M A R Y

of

THE URBAN PRINCIPAL

Discretionary Decision-Making in a Large Educational Organization

a research project funded by the National Institute of Education

Van Cleve Morris, Professor
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Chicago, Illinois

Chapter Topic

PART ONE: OVERVIEW

I. INTRODUCTION

Originating in bilateral talks between the Chicago Principals Association and the College of Education of the University of Illinois, the research proposal was developed with the sponsorship of the Chicago Board of Education and was underwritten by the C.P.A., the Spencer Foundation, and the National Institute of Education.

What do principals do? In the act of principaling, what activities comprise their work day, and how does their administrative decision-making affect (a) students and teachers within the school, (b) parents and laymen outside in the community, (c) administrative superiors in the hierarchy, and (d) themselves as career-oriented professionals?

Four professors at the University of Illinois at Chicago Circle set out to answer these questions by trailing sixteen Chicago school principals on the job for up to 12 days each. In this ethnographic study of big-city, educational middle-managers, the researchers recorded what principals do minute by minute, who they talk to (including by telephone), what they talk about, who initiates the contact, where these interchanges take place and how long they last. The four researchers logged over 300 hours of observation time in the data-gathering phase of the study.

Data analysis yielded time distribution profiles for elementary and secondary principals, and descriptive analysis of work patterns drawn from selected events and case studies.

Chapter Topic

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Research on the principalship covers the last fifty years, with a gathering tempo of interest in the last ten. Ethnography as a method of studying the principalship is relatively recent, but pioneering work in this method has provided a context in which the present investigation was conducted. The research is reviewed under rubrics of the present study, namely, studies examining the principalship and (a) teachers and students, (b) community factors, (c) system superiors, and (d) the principal as person.

PART TWO: THE PRINCIPAL'S WORK PROFILE

III. THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL

The elementary principal devotes 80 percent of the work day to face-to-face interchanges with staff, faculty members, and pupils. He or she is in contact with superiors 11 percent of the typical day. The principal initiates two-thirds of these contacts. Eight percent of the time is spent on the telephone, and 12 percent in reading or writing communications. The principal is physically present in the principal's office less than half of the typical day, spending another 40 percent of work hours about equally off school grounds, roaming the corridors, visiting classrooms, or working with clerks and staff aides in the outer office.

Chicago elementary principals devote large segments of their work hours to the external environment, particularly to planners and program specialists operating out of central headquarters downtown. Program initiatives (e.g., Mastery Learning, Access to Excellence, faculty desegregation) must be operationalized at the site level, and require complicated responses and adjustments by individual schools. The elementary principal, as the middle-management broker in these system-wide undertakings, must explain and interpret HQ programs to teachers, parents, and pupils.

IV. THE SECONDARY PRINCIPAL

The secondary principal governs a heterogeneous domain encompassing educational programs, a student guidance and advisory apparatus, a mini-police force to monitor discipline, and an entertainment factory, i.e., dramatic productions, musical festivals, and athletic contests. The principal spends up to 70 percent of the day interacting with teachers, staff aides, and students with most of these interchanges being initiated by the principal. Eighty percent of the work day is taken up with either personal conversations or cruising about the building, with seven percent being spent on the telephone and another seven percent with

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reading and writing communications. The secondary principal spends 45 percent of the typical work day in the office, with 12 percent being spent off school grounds at district or system meetings. The remaining hours are about equally divided between walking the corridors, monitoring the lunchroom, visiting classrooms, and working with clerks and aides in the outer office. The principal's work day is a variegated tumble of events, one after another, with little discernible rank-ordering of the importance of managerial activities.

PART THREE: DISCRETIONARY DECISION-MAKING

V. PRINCIPALING AND ITS EFFECTS ON THE SCHOOL

A. STABILIZATION AND ENHANCEMENT: A Manager's Balancing Act

Most of the principal's activities serve to make the organization run smoothly, protecting it from disruptions and surprises. Sometimes, however, the principal wants to change things, start new programs, reshuffle staff or rearrange duties in order to improve the school's work. Too much stabilization deadens the enterprise; too much enhancement is disorienting and counterproductive. How does the principal find the right balance?

The principal stabilizes the environment by becoming actively involved in discipline and behavior management (anticipating problems, managing events, and enforcing school rules); by mobilizing parent cooperation in controlling outside influences (using the community to protect the work of the school, building lay support for the school's program, orchestrating community involvement); by upgrading staff quality while preventing staff conflicts (communicating clear expectations to colleagues, supporting teacher autonomy, and rewarding cooperative behavior).

B. THE TRANSFORMATION OF ATTITUDES: Emotional changes in a Mini-bureaucracy

In moving the work of the school along, the principal not only supervises the work of others but sometimes is called upon to re-orient colleague attitudes and prejudices. What are the strategies for getting people to change attitudes deeply held?

A case study is presented in which the principal diagnoses and reshapes staff attitudes that run counter to the spirit of school policy. In the seemingly routine exercise of reassigning teacher aides to hall duty and office work, a principal was able to do some consciousness-raising by altering the aides' attitudes regarding fairness, racial non-discrimination, and the principle of rewarding merit rather than longevity on the job.

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C. CLIMATE CONTROL: Instructional Leadership by Indirection

Conventional wisdom specifies that the principal's primary job is the evaluation and upgrading of instruction. But principals spend very little time in the classroom observing teaching. Instead, they use their time cultivating good learning conditions by managing the psychic ambiance of the school community.

One principal roams the school reminding teachers and students of their duties and exhorting all participants in the learning process to strive for good work and exemplary performance. This principal is quick to remove troublesome or disruptive students from classrooms so that the other youngsters can go on learning. Another principal regards himself as a trouble-spotter and trouble-shooter, quelling disturbances before they get out of hand. He takes an active role in discipline of the students, leaving the teachers free to devote their full energies to their teaching duties.

VI. PRINCIPALING AND ITS EFFECTS ON THE COMMUNITY

A. SOCIALIZING THE CLIENTS: Shaping community expectations

The layman has always harbored grand fantasies as to the power of the public school. The bulk of these expectations can never be satisfied, even under the best of circumstances. The principal's managerial work includes de-educating the public about the school's capabilities, and re-educating parents and other community people as to just what they can and cannot expect from their local school.

The principal molds parental expectations by informing a mother concerned about her child's grades that the teacher cannot send home a report card every Friday. On the other hand, the principal is generous with her time in helping parents with non-school-related problems (filling out insurance forms, assisting in child custody cases, warning parents of a child's suicidal remarks). The principal guides and channels parent participation into acceptable, non-disruptive avenues of service by energizing a moribund PTA or holding coffees in a cooperative parent's home. One principal uses a bullhorn on the playground ostensibly to corral noisy and unruly youngsters, but really to impress the unseen listening audience of parents in surrounding apartment buildings with his tough, take-charge style.

B. CRAZY MOTHER AS MASCOT: Disarming the Volatile Critic

Every school has a parent whose self-appointed task is to bug the principal. This troublesomeness customarily focuses on the school's handling of the parent's child, but sometimes spills over into complaints about the school's role in the community at large. What are the principal's strategems for handling this kind of "professional complainer?"

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In one instance, an interested mother insinuated herself into the working routine of the school by volunteering to monitor the playground and guide youngsters into the building after recess. However, she became entangled with a teacher aide as to whose responsibility it was to unlock a troublesome door so that children could re-enter the building. The confrontation eventually required the principal, not wishing to alienate the parent, to bring the two together in the office to work out a "peace treaty."

C. HOLDING THE CUSTOMERS: Headhunting in Scholastica

Budgets are now tied directly to enrollments. Teacher allocations are a direct function of the number of boys and girls in daily attendance. Accordingly, one of the new tasks of the principal is recruitment of students. How does the principal enhance the headcount? How does the principal keep the kids in school instead of home watching TV or roaming the streets?

Principals engineer changes in the curriculum to attract and hold students. They bend the rules of who is entitled to enter a program or enroll students who live beyond attendance boundaries. Transfer applicants who are good students will be accepted, while weaker students will be told that system transfer rules cannot accommodate them.

D. IMAGE BUILDING: Making Non-educational Factors Work for You

Every school has an advertising problem: How to look good to the customers. The educational program itself is not a glamorous article. Hence, the school's reputation as a school sometimes rides on other things: football teams, dramatic productions, marching bands--all leading to a good press. How does the principal engineer this non-educational visibility to enhance the status of the institution?

One principal whose school was redesignated an "academy" made the most of this conversion by scheduling meetings of parents and influential community leaders in order publicly to interpret the change as a significant upgrading of the quality of the school. In another case, a high school principal developed a "farm system" for identifying promising athletes at the feeder elementary schools so they could later help to build winning teams for the school.

VII. PRINCIPALING AND ITS EFFECTS ON THE HIERARCHY

A. CREATIVE INSUBORDINATION: Civilized Disobedience

One of the principal's primary responsibilities is to protect the integrity and working rhythm of his own school. Bureaucratic instructions from the upper echelons of the system often do not

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reflect an understanding of how individual schools function. Accordingly, on occasion, and to protect the working relationships, not to mention the morale, of his/her staff, a principal ignores, deliberately misunderstands or outright disobeys orders from superiors. Such insubordination is a managerial art form.

Two principals made a "gentleman's agreement" not to encourage inter-racial transfers ordered by the superintendent because the loss of instructional time would work to the severe disadvantage of already under-achieving youngsters. Many principals deliberately disregard deadlines, knowing that HQ personnel will soon reschedule the deadlines originally imposed. By following instructions literally, the most sophisticated mode of disobedience, many principals forward to superior officers information they know is incorrect, but defend the action by declaring: "I gave them what they wanted!"

B. SHORT-CIRCUITING THE LABYRINTH: To Hell with the S.O.P.

After an organization grows to a certain size, dedication to Standard Operating Procedure is a marginal value, sometimes downright counterproductive. Such bureaucratic line discipline is appropriate only for "high impact" decisions. For the day-to-day running of a school, the principal must get the job done even if it means running around and outside the chain of command.

Some principals organize the community against the system, a dangerous tactic that can backfire. Others find loopholes in the rules, and solve staffing problems routinely through "loophole management." Other principals invent policy statements ad hoc to solve a site-level problem, even though the policy runs counter to board of education positions. Principals use an "old crony" network to identify good teachers or track down hard-to-find supplies that would take weeks to obtain through channels.

C. THE SHIFTING CHESSBOARD AND THE SCRAMBLE FOR POWER

The term of the present study has inadvertently coincided with a period of traumatic upheaval in the Chicago Public School system--community militance, faculty/administrator desegregation, system-wide "Mastery Learning" mandates, "Access-to-Excellence" innovations, Department of Justice busing guidelines, and finally, threatened financial collapse. As the system is buffeted, month by month, by external demands and internal mismanagement, the rules begin to change. The chessboard shifts beneath the players' feet but the players must go on playing. In these circumstances, the principal's discretionary areas of action expand. Some principals recoil from this phenomenon but others, more imaginative, use this situation to enhance their position and increase their power.

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One principal detected indecision in a downtown HQ staffer but, instead of waiting for clearance, went ahead and enrolled students in a new program, realizing that clearance would probably never arrive and, moreover, that in the confusion no one would notice. Other principals routinely pepper the bureaucracy with requests, gambling on the possiblitiy that, in a condition of chaos, some fluke of bureaucratic paper-shuffling will produce results. Some principals run a "tight ship" and cultivate a reputation among their superiors for running problem-free schools. They then use this positive image by asking for, and getting, special favors from their superiors.

VIII. PRINCIPALING AND ITS EFFECTS ON THE PRINCIPAL

A. SHAPING THE JOB TO SUIT: Maximizing Job Satisfaction by Design

Like other workers, principals hold attitudes toward their own job; they like some parts, dislike other parts. As managers, principals can shape the job to their own liking--spending time on the things they are good at or enjoy doing. Principals especially enjoy working on problems which they know in advance can be solved, that have an "end product" of some sort. If principals cannot fully program their own success, they can at least program their own satisfaction, which is perhaps the next best thing.

Some principals spend almost no time in classrooms observing teaching; they don't like this duty. They prefer to cruise the corridors, personalizing with their presence the authority of their office. Others like to get off school grounds, and invent errands they must run for the school. Still others enjoy youngsters more than adults, and spend large amounts of time with them, in the corridors, at the lunchroom and outdoors on the playground.

PART FOUR: BEHAVIOR AND INFORMATION

IX. PRINCIPALS AND BUSINESSMEN: How They Manage

As a leading pioneer in the ethnographic study of organizational management (and whose work helped to prompt the present investigation), Henry Mintzberg observed businessmen in action. In his The Nature of Managerial Work, he has analyzed the job of the manager in the business world into ten categories of behavior. How do school principals compare with businessmen in the way they conduct the act of managing a school?

Both groups use the telephone equally, but sparingly, in their work. Businessmen handle considerably more mail, both incoming and outgoing, than principals. Business people transact a large share of the managerial business in scheduled, sit-down group meetings throughout

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the day. Principals, in contrast, spend most of their time on their feet in spontaneous, unscheduled, one-on-one conversations with their colleagues and clients. Businessmen rarely make a walking tour of their premises. Principals, on the other hand, are in motion, cruising about the building more than half the work day.

Mintzberg's ten behavior categories can be superimposed somewhat but not completely onto principals' work. Business management appears far less personal than school principaling. Leader behavior seems very restricted in the Mintzberg format, not embracing many things a principal does as a school leader. Decision-making in the principal's work schedule is a piecemeal, a-little-at-a-time activity; Mintzberg's Decisional mode is reserved for dramatic, high-visibility performances.

X. OBTAINING AND USING PROFESSIONAL INFORMATION: The Knowledge Producers and School Principaling.

The educational literature is full of information on teaching, learning, evaluating, money management, budget-making, personnel practices, staff development, and student discipline. Does the school principal consult this literature? If so, how does this knowledge work its way into the principal's work? If not, how does the principal acquire and utilize professional information relevant to his/her job?

Principals on the job are not readers. Although some get their professional ideas from books and journals, most of them receive it through conferences, conventions, workshops, and professional newsletters. Principals are generally aware of professional information regarding their work, but they are not successful in utilizing this information in achieving the goals of the school or enhancing their own performance.

XI. CONCLUSION: TOWARD THEORETICAL UNDERSTANDING

By focusing on the effects of principaling behavior--on the school, on the community, on the hierarchy, and on the principal's own career orientation--we can generalize from the findings and draw the account to a close. Specifically, we have learned that:

A. Principals use discretionary opportunity to maintain their school site in an acceptable equilibrium with the organizational environment.

B. Principals use discretion to protect the school system from the uncertainties of an unpredictable clientele.

C. Principals use discretion to adapt organizational policies to the needs and interests of the local community clientele.

D. Principals use discretion to realize their own personal goals and to provide themselves satisfaction and direction amidst a complex, disordered organizational environment.

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E. Principals use discretion to acquire "sub-unit" power vis-a-vis the larger educational organization.

F. Principals use their discretion to adapt to the career advancement/ reward system of the larger educational organization.

G. Principals use discretion to protect the school site from interference in its instructional endeavor.

As the semi-autonomous, chief executive of an active and lively environment, the principal is in a position to set the pace and tone of institutional life. The principal's style of management, personal openness, professional integrity, and administrative adroitness eventually come together to define the school as a teaching and learning organization.

APPENDICES

A. Rosters of project advisory committees

B. The Decision-making of Researchers: A Look into the Process of Ethnographic Research in School Administration.

C. The Heisenberg Problem: The Effect of the Observer on Observed Phenomena